

On the True Nature of Quarks and What Differentiates Protons, Neutrons and Antiprotons

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If we wish to efficiently generate, for example, anti-protons, then we must understand the defining differences between protons, anti-protons and neutrons. We must also improve our understanding of what, precisely, quarks are if we wish to artificially generate them. Generating quarks is a prerequisite for generating synthetic protons; currently believed to be primordial, as are quarks.

This paper will outlay some novel foundational hypotheses in the area of the nature of quarks and quark systems. These understandings are crucial in order to be able to convert protons into anti-protons with efficiency and also open the door to demonstrating how a proton can be flipped to become a neutron and back again into a proton. This paper will challenge fundamental assumptions about what, precisely, an anti-proton is.

By colliding protons, we have already learned that a proton consists of three quarks, two of which are termed “up” quarks and one of which is termed a “down” quark. The nature of these quarks and their positional relationships with one-another, however, remain mysterious.

Before explaining other concepts, it is, firstly, important for readers to understand the antipodean relationship between the two ‘up’ quarks as they revolve around the central ‘down’ quark. It is also important to understand that quarks are not physical objects as we understand them, but are energetic formations which transmute other forms of energy. Quarks, I propose, result from focused gravity in the absence of a magnetic vortex. In the presence of a magnetic vortex, these confluences become electrons. Excesses of gravitational (neutrino) energy which can come about as a result of alignments of protons can result in the formation of quarks. Quarks, we know, exist only briefly in isolation, but can be stabilized within quark systems such as those of protons and neutrons.

Created from gravitational confluences, quarks are capable of converting influxing gravity into gluons, which do not merely hold quark systems together but are particles which are actively emitted and which influence neighboring particles. They are of the same scale as neutrinos, but have different effects. Quarks of the ‘up’ variety transmit gluons outward, projecting positive electrical charge and electroweak effects at long ranges and the strong force at short ranges.

In the early universe, neutrino energy was the only form of energy, but its density was high. Confluences of this energy capable of generating quarks were common. The rotational velocity of the ‘up’ quarks in a protonic quark system determine the electroweak repulsive force associated with and therefore the structural integrity of the protons. What we call an anti-proton is not a negative charged anti-particle at all, but rather, a proton which has a quark system of diminished energy and therefore diminished electroweak

repulsive force. Anti-protons annihilate with protons because the comparatively energetic outer quarks of the proton are able to “dip into” the orbit of the quarks of the anti-proton, which results in one up quark from each system being thrown out of their respective orbits, much like a planet could be thrown out of the solar system if a sufficiently massive rogue object passed through the system. The quark systems then rip themselves apart as their stability relies on the aforementioned antipodean balance.

When gravity (neutrinos) are accepted at the central quark and are converted by the central quark and projected in two directions, this is a protonic system. There is no physical difference between an up and a down quark. The difference lies in the fact that a down quark acts as a receiver and converter of gravity and an up quark takes focused gluons projected from the down quarks and spreads their focused energy outward, omnidirectionally. Like their higher-order cousin, the proton, gluons will usually mutually repel (save for the case of the odderon) and this causes up quarks (areas in which gluons achieve parallax) to act as a gluon-scattering field. When neutrinos converge, they are transformed into gluons, but when gluons converge, they simply scatter. Quarks are, therefore, points of convergence for subatomic particles which have specific effects upon like particles.

With this understanding, we can think of neutrons in a new light. A neutron, we know, features two down quarks and one up quark. I propose that the virtual, ephemeral nature of the neutron (i.e. it is stable only in a nuclear system) is a byproduct of the fact that protons, which provoke their own influxing gravity, are also projecting the electroweak force (gluons) and that this creates an inverted flow in which gravity is siphoned into the exterior quarks of the system and is converted into gluons which flow toward the interior, central quark, which acts as the ‘up’ quark.

All of the positive charge created by the conversion of gravity in a neutron into gluons is directed inward, preventing its measurement and causing us to perceive it as electrically neutral.

One of the fundamental, unanswered questions in physics is why it is that only so many protons and neutrons can stably exist in a nucleus before it becomes unstable. Part of the answer may lie in the fact that neutrons tend to outnumber protons in heavier elements, which, in turn, might be due to the large number of individual protons creating too many lines of concentrated gravity which have too great of a tendency to converge in closely neighboring areas rather than in the immediate center of a neutron.

Imagine a Venn Diagram and how, as we add more circles to the diagram, there are more points at which the lines converge. We can visualize the gravitational field created by each proton (neutrons do not generate gravitational fields despite having mass) as fields. However, when we superimpose a visualization of many overlapping fields, we can see that there are areas resembling lines which feature increased concentration of field strength.

As was mentioned, when gravity converges at one, specific point, we get a ‘down’ quark and this ultimately leads to the formation of two antipodean up

quarks and makes a proton. When, however, gravity converges in two closely collocated nexii, it can lead to two down quarks forming near one another and in an up quark appearing between the two. This is, essentially, the definition of a neutron. The gravitational fields provoked by the collocation of more than one proton create more than one nexus of energy in the form of multiple 'down' quarks in the same system. This is why, when we put two protons together in helium, we get two neutrons, but we can also easily get an isotope of helium with only one neutron. This has to do with the probability of the convergence of these lines of concentrated gravity. As we move into the elements heavier than helium, isotopes become more uncommon and the ratio of neutrons to protons tends to be 1:1, all the way up to uranium, at which point, convergences of gravity from great numbers of protons can enable clusters of three and four protons, due to the geometry of these lines, give rise to a greater number of neutrons than the protons which created them. As those neutrons are not bound as strongly to the nucleus, they can be prone to decay due to the introduction of simple vibrations (e.g. when the "Demon Core" was dropped, releasing lethal doses of neutrons.) There is an elegant symmetry in the tendency of lightweight elements to have neutron-deficient isotopes and in heavy elements to have neutron-heavy isotopes. The ferromagnetic metals, iron, cobalt and nickel with 26, 27, and 28 protons, respectively, interestingly enough, are the least likely to have isotopic variants in nature and yet, also possess the property of a nucleus which allows the spin states of electrons in the second shell to be preserved. This, likely, has to do with the geometry of the protons in those elements and how their discrete gravitational fields ensure non-interference between Shell 1 and Shell 2 electrons, which are the carriers of ferromagnetism and with Shell 1 electrons typically corrupting the spins of the Shell 2 electrons.

That said, it should be possible, in theory, to take a neutron and to convert it into a proton by, first stabilizing the neutron outside of the context of a nucleus and moving the neutron in proximity to a series of aligned protons sometimes known as a Coulomb Force Line Generator. If about 1,000 protons were held in close proximity and the neutron were placed about 500 neutron-diameters from the closest proton in that line, a sharply focused line of gravity would be inducted through the neutron's central "up" quark. This could have the effect of inverting the flow of neutrinos versus gluons and causing the system to become protonic.

Interestingly, this author predicts that the comparatively low energy of a neutronic quark system would mean that flipping a neutron from neutron into proton would not generate a standard proton, but would generate what we call an anti-proton. I believe it would be more accurate to call these "weak protons." In any case, these weak protons would have the property of being able to annihilate other protonic systems and generate extremely large quantities of Gamma.

In fact, we could begin with standard protons and modify these standard protons into anti-protons using a pair of these Coulomb Force Line Generators by creating two, near-parallel CFLs the lines of which converge at a given point and by taking protons and passing them not directly through the point of

convergence, but at a point just inside of that point of convergence so that each of the two lines would pass through the edge of the protons (where the 'up' quarks are.)

This would cause the rotational velocity to drop, just as a proton-proton collision would in the case of bombarding iridium in an accelerator with protons, which only has a 1 in 1 million chance of generating an anti-proton. However, this would achieve the effect reliably, with the only limit being the number of protons which could be fired into a keyhole which is less than an angstrom in width. The extreme velocities of a particle accelerator would be unnecessary in this system, but precision would be absolutely necessary, as would be a system for containing the anti-protons.

This would bring us a step closer to being able to produce meaningful numbers of anti-protons in miniaturized devices, which, when combined with other mechanisms, would have certain applications.

An extant concept submitted by an anonymous contributor suggested accumulating hydrogen of an anionic variety and compressing the protons in a small space using tunable solid-state magnets and isolating the anionized hydrogen from outside electromagnetism using metamaterial shielding in order to ensure that it continues to maintain an extremely positively charged state.

With this understanding, it may prove more practical to use a reaction between anti-protons and protons to generate the needed Gamma to trigger a thermonuclear cascade. If the electromagnetic shielding around the anionized hydrogen also had a layer which was designed to stably store anti-protons through magnetic suspension, it would be possible to form a shell of anti-protons surrounding the densified hydrogen. Upon annihilation with protons, extreme quantities of Gamma would be generated which would convert into electrons upon striking the bulk hydrogen. This would begin the process of the electrons migrating toward the core of the bulk hydrogen and repeated cycles of expansion and contraction which are characteristic of thermonuclear reactions.

This trigger mechanism would be the most efficient permitted by the laws of physics.